

**PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND DECISION SUPPORT FOR ECOSYSTEM
BASED FISHERIES MANAGEMENT OF THE WEST COAST OF SCOTLAND**

Kåre N. Nielsen^{1*}, Alan Baudron², Niall Fallon², Paul G. Fernandes², Mika Rahikainen³,
Michaela Aschan¹

¹*UiT, The Arctic University of Norway, 9037 Tromsø, Norway*

²*School of Biological Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, UK*

³*University of Helsinki, Viikinkaari 2 A, 00014-University of Helsinki, Finland*

**kare.nolde.nielsen@uit.no*

ABSTRACT

Mixed fisheries and the marine ecosystems that sustain them are complex entities and involve multiple and potentially conflicting management objectives and stakeholder interests. The presence of multiple trade-offs complicates the identification of strategies that satisfy various policy requirements while being acceptable to affected stakeholder groups. This creates a demand for tools and processes that support learning, cooperation and planning. We report on the application of decision support methodology used in combination with a co-creation approach to scenario based planning for the demersal fisheries of the West coast of Scotland. These fisheries face significant challenges, such as the depletion of key stocks and increased predation by seals. In collaboration with stakeholders we identified generic management alternatives and indicators to evaluate their performance in a structured evaluation using Multi Criteria Analysis. We identify the potential and limitations of this approach and suggest how it can contribute to Ecosystem Based Fisheries Management. This approach does not provide

tactical management advice, but stimulates learning and creates an opportunity for stakeholders to search for strategic and policy relevant solutions in an EBFM context.

Key words: Co-creation, EBFM, Ecopath with Ecosim, decision support, Multi-Criteria Analysis.

1. Introduction

Mixed fisheries and the marine ecosystems that sustain them are complex and involve multiple and potentially conflicting management objectives and stakeholder interests. With a single stock approach to fisheries management these conflicts may remain unarticulated and thus outside the management focus. Dolan et al. (2016) describe how ecosystem management aspects are considered within a continuum from focussing on single-species to systemic and multi-sector perspectives. They place the notion of Ecosystem Based Fisheries Management (EBFM) within a hierarchy of ecosystem management concepts as involving "...a system-level perspective on fisheries in an ecosystem". In EBFM, the conflicting goals of harvesters of prey species and harvesters of predator species become explicit as trade-offs. The presence of multiple trade-offs complicates the identification of management strategies that satisfy policy requirements while being acceptable to stakeholder groups. A key challenge for EBFM is to present trade-offs and to arrive at compromises between multiple concerns in a transparent manner while avoiding information overload.

The European Union is committed to progress towards an ecosystem approach for the management of fisheries and the marine environment. Two main policies include this commitment, namely the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP; EC 2013) and the Marine Strategy

48 Framework Directive (MSFD; EC 2008). In recent years a number of ecosystem models have
49 been established for fisheries in European areas (Hyder et al., 2015), but their role in
50 supporting the implementation of EBFM seems limited due to several barriers. These include:
51 Institutional mismatch, difficulties in obtaining reliable data to parameterise ecosystem
52 models (e.g., diet composition), uncertainty due to the large number of ecological processes
53 modelled, difficulties with finding legitimate and efficient ways to accommodate stakeholders
54 in planning and decision-making, and difficulties with integrating biological, economic and
55 social information in a common framework (Christensen and Walters, 2004, 2005; Ramirez-
56 Monsalve et al. 2016a,b; Ounanian et al., 2012; Benson and Stephenson, 2018).

57 We aim to contribute to progress with implementing EBFM through a case study in a
58 European setting, namely the demersal fisheries off the west coast of Scotland. The case
59 study forms a part of a large European research project, MareFrame¹, which was funded to
60 remove barriers that prevent a more widespread use of EBFM in Europe. Each of the project's
61 seven case studies engaged stakeholders in an iterative and structured planning process,
62 utilizing outputs of ecosystem-models together with decision support methodology.

63 Multi Criteria Analysis (MCA) was used as the main decision support method in most case
64 studies. In recent decades, MCA has increasingly been used in environmental planning and
65 decision making, because it helps to deal with complex problems (Huang et al., 2011).
66 However, we are unaware of earlier cases where MCA has supported participatory and
67 structured scenario evaluation in the context of EBFM.

68 MareFrame deployed a co-creation approach to generate credible, policy relevant and
69 legitimate knowledge (see Ballesteros et al., this issue). Co-creation is considered particularly

Commented [A1]: Christensen, V., Walters, C.J., 2004. Ecopath with Ecosim: Methods, capabilities and limitations. *Ecol. Modell.* 172, 109–139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2003.09.003>

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¹ <http://mareframe-fp7.org/> (last visited 20.06.18).

70 relevant for transdisciplinary and problem oriented research. Transdisciplinary research
71 projects involve “...academic researchers from different unrelated disciplines as well as non-
72 academic participants, such as land managers, user groups, NGOs and the general public, to
73 create new knowledge and theory and research a common question” (Tress et al., 2004). The
74 project research team for this case study comprised experts in fisheries modelling, decision
75 support, and fisheries governance. This team cooperated with stakeholder representatives
76 involved with planning and decision making for fisheries and marine conservation.

77 A central feature of co-creation is to involve stakeholders in a continuous and iterative
78 research process. The process comprises the stages of co-design and co-production, including
79 (co-) dissemination of results (Mauser et al., 2013). The co-design phase identified the main
80 issues in the context of governance and policy and outlined the general research approach,
81 given the available expertise, data and time. Hence, the case study was not framed by the
82 concerns and interests of the stakeholders alone, but also by relevant policies and practical
83 constraints. In the co-production phase a decision support framework, including several
84 relevant resources was developed. The stakeholders tested the framework and provided
85 feedback on its potential for further development and use.

86 The aim of this work is to report on the approach, the outcomes and the overall experience of
87 a co-creation approach in scenario based planning with MCA. We identify the potential and
88 limitations of this approach, and suggest how it may contribute to advance EBFM in Europe.
89 Ultimately we aim to illustrate how MCA and co-creation may support the operationalisation
90 of EBFM.

91 **2. Material and methods**

92 Following a common planning approach (Gregory, 2012), we defined alternative management
93 scenarios, simulated their likely performance using a foodweb ecosystem model (Ecopath

94 with Ecosim, EwE), and conducted a structured evaluation of the scenarios with MCA. This
95 was carried out in cooperation with stakeholders as organised into five steps, of which the
96 first three can be taken to represent the co-design phase of co-creation, with the subsequent
97 steps respectively representing co-production and co-dissemination:

- 98 1. Identify the overall goals and problem scope of the case study
- 99 2. Identify objectives and indicators
- 100 3. Identify management scenarios
- 101 4. Estimate scenario impacts with models
- 102 5. Structured evaluation with MCA and feedback

103 For the purposes of this work, we considered that "scoping" involves identification of the
104 problem matter to be addressed in the planning exercise (1). This is followed by an
105 "operationalisation" process, where policy and practical constraints are taken into
106 consideration when defining and evaluating management alternatives (2-5).

107 Participating stakeholders were representatives from fish producer organisations, fisheries
108 associations and environmental Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). Most stakeholders
109 were participants of the North Western Advisory Council (NWWAC), which has a formal
110 role in providing advice on issues related to the Common Fisheries Policy in the North
111 Western regional sea area, which includes the case study area. The NWWAC was a partner in
112 the MareFrame project and facilitated dissemination and discussion of the case study
113 development. The NWWAC also invited its participants to the case study meetings, which
114 included three workshops and several web-based meetings. In line with CFP requirements
115 (EC 2013), 60% of the seats of the NWWAC are allotted to representatives of the fisheries
116 sector and 40% to representatives of the other interest groups. While a wide range of

117 stakeholders were invited to contribute, fishing industry perspectives were nevertheless much
118 more strongly represented than other perspectives in the case study meetings.

119

120 2.1 The case study

121 The important commercial fisheries of the west of Scotland case study area (ICES Division
122 VIa, hereafter referred to as VIa; see Fig. 1 for an overview of the area) include: prawn
123 (*Nephrops norvegicus*, hereafter referred to as Nephrops); the gadoids cod (*Gadus morhua*),
124 whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), hake (*Merluccius*
125 *merluccius*), and saithe (*Pollachius virens*); and anglerfish (mainly *Lophius piscatorius*).

126 [Fig. 1. about here]

127 **Fig. 1.** Map of the west of Scotland case study area showing the model extent shaded in grey.
128 The dotted outline marks the outline of ICES division VIa. The shelf area within division VIa
129 to a depth of 200m was modelled.

130

131 UK (Scotland), Ireland and France are the main participants in these fisheries, which are
132 conducted using otter trawlers (ICES, 2012). Trawlers may target a particular species
133 assemblage in particular areas, but invariably catch a mixture of species. The main target
134 fisheries in VIa include an inshore fishery targeting Nephrops (with by-catches of gadoids), a
135 shelf fishery targeting gadoids, and a fishery on the shelf edge, with saithe, anglerfish and
136 hake as important species.

137 While the fishing mortality (F) for shellfish, demersal, and pelagic fish stocks has reduced
138 since the late 1990s in the wider Celtic Sea area (ICES, 2016a), a main problem faced in the
139 demersal fisheries in VIa is that the cod and whiting stocks are depleted as the spawning
140 stocks biomass (SSB) of these stocks have remained close to all-time low levels since the

early 2000s (ICES, 2017). F for the cod stock remains above F_{MSY} despite an amended recovery plan introduced in 2012 (EC, 2012), which among other things determines Total Allowable Catches (TACs), limits effort, and seeks to incentivize cod avoidance. A voluntary cod avoidance scheme (Holmes et al., 2011) did not achieve intended F reductions (Kraak et al., 2013). Since 2012, the TAC for cod has been zero but 1.5% bycatch of live weight of cod is permitted. The catch limits apply to landings, and do not constrain catches as about 60% of the cod catch was on average discarded between 2014 and 2016 (ICES, 2017). As reformed in 2014, the (CFP) includes an obligation to land all catches of TAC regulated species (EC, 2013). With the landing obligation, cod and whiting stocks could become “choke species” (Baudron and Fernandes, 2015), prompting a premature closure of fisheries for other species. Predation by grey seals (*Halichoerus grypus*) may impede cod recovery, in particular if the seals increasingly target cod individuals when the abundance of cod is low (Cook et al., 2015, Cook and Trijoulet, 2016). The grey seal population is estimated to have more than doubled between 1985 and 2005 but has stabilised since then (SCOS, 2015).

155

156 **2.2 Estimation of scenario impacts**

Scenario impacts were estimated with an ecosystem model and a sub-model to estimate economic indicators. The ecosystem model used was an Ecopath with Ecosim (EwE) (Christensen and Walters 2004; Coll  ter et al., 2015; Heymans et al., 2016). EwE is a foodweb ecosystem model encompassing the whole trophic food chain from plankton to apex predators (e.g., mammals and seabirds). Groups (i.e., single species or groups of species) are modelled as biomass pools without length or age structure. The use of EwE in a fisheries management context instead of other ecosystem or multispecies models available has both advantages and drawbacks (Christensen and Walters 2004; Heymans et al., 2016). The lack of a length or age structure is a main drawback, which prevents modelling of the impact of

166 alternative selectivities and of issues related to undersized discards. A main advantage is that
167 the model generates insights on the structure and health of the whole ecosystem, which cannot
168 be provided by multispecies models where fewer species and trophic levels are represented in
169 greater details. EwE therefore offers the possibility to calculate ecosystem indicators where
170 the whole foodweb is taken into account (e.g., biodiversity, foodweb evenness, etc.). The
171 literature contains several examples where EwE was successfully applied to investigate
172 fishing management strategies in complex multispecies system (e.g., Stäbler et al., 2016).
173 Appendix A provides details for the EwE model applied to the case study area.

174 We used revenue and profit as indicators to assess the economic performance of the fishery in
175 each scenario. For each fleet, revenues over the simulation period (2014-2033) were estimated
176 as the landings (Kg) multiplied by the first sale price (£/Kg). We obtained price values from
177 2008 to 2014 from the Scientific, Technical and Economic Committee for Fisheries of the
178 European Commission (STECF) and used the median prices for the study (Appendix B).
179 Profits for each fleet over the simulation period were calculated as revenues minus costs. To
180 estimate costs over the 2014-2033 period, costs coefficients were calculated using historical
181 data from 2008 to 2014 to relate costs to fishing mortality following Quaas et al. (2012):

182 (1)

$$183 \quad \text{Cost coefficient}_{species} = \frac{\text{Cost}_{demersal\ trawl, species}}{\text{Fishing mortality}_{species}}$$

184 The resulting costs coefficients are presented in Appendix C. Profits over the simulation
185 period were then calculated as follows using these cost coefficients together with the landings
186 returned by the model:

187 (2)

$$Profit_{species} = (landings_{species} * price_{species}) - (cost\ coefficient_{species} * Fishing\ mortality_{species})$$

2.3 Multi-criteria analysis

MCA (Janssen, 2001; Kowalski et al., 2009, Sheppard and Meitner, 2005) was used to support a structured evaluation of alternative management scenarios. MCA software with functionality similar to that described by Mustajoki et al. (2004) was developed within the MareFrame project and is freely available along with the specific MCA model we report on.²

A main outcome of MCA is a summary score for each scenario, ranking their relative performance. The robustness of the ranking can be explored by a (one-way) sensitivity analysis, by which one parameter is varied at the time. The sensitivity analysis allows for a graphical evaluation of the impact of estimation uncertainty for the indicator values and of changes in the decision weights attributed to sub-objectives and indicators (Mustajoki et al. 2004). The latter is important since it may be difficult to set the decision weights.

2.4 Scope, objectives and indicators

The problem scope for the case study was defined in a workshop with stakeholders held in May 2014 to explore the potential for recovery of the cod and whiting stocks, and to investigate the impact of seal predation. Cod and whiting stocks traditionally have a high economic and cultural significance in Scotland, and the risk of these stocks becoming “choke species” amplifies their importance. Further, the case study identified an approach for Maximum Economic Yield (MEY) for the fisheries concerned. The overall goal of the

²The specific MCA model can be assessed and interacted with at the following site: https://mareframe.github.io/dsf/dev/MCA2/DST.html?model=scotland_weighted (accessed 18.06.18). Other generic and specific decision support tools are available at associated webpages.

209 proposed management alternative was identified as: “achieving sustainable and viable
210 fisheries”.

211 To be of relevance, a proposal developed by stakeholders must demonstrate consistency with
212 established policy objectives. The CFP and the MSFD are focal for EBFM (Ramírez-
213 Monsalve et al, 2016a) in VIa. In addition, the fisheries and the marine environment in VIa
214 come under the Habitats Directive (EC, 1992), the Birds Directive (EC, 2009), and the Water
215 Directive (EC, 2000).

216 A key requirement of the CFP is to restore the Spawning Stock Biomass (SSB) of commercial
217 fish stocks to levels consistent with Maximum Sustainable Yield (MSY) by 2020 and/or to
218 maintain them at such levels. The MSFD requires that indicators and thresholds are defined to
219 represent Good Environmental Status (GES) in relation to 11 descriptors. Indicators and
220 thresholds are currently most advanced with respect to descriptor 3, which largely may be
221 seen to represent the CFP requirements of having healthy commercial fish stocks. Three other
222 descriptors were judged to be of potential relevance for this case study. These are descriptor 1
223 (biodiversity), 4 (integrity of foodwebs) and 6 (integrity of seafloor habitats). Descriptor 6
224 was not addressed because the model framework was not set up to address spatial aspects. In
225 addition to biological and environmental objectives, the CFP and the MSFD seek to achieve
226 social and economic sustainability for the use of marine resources, notably fisheries, but no
227 specific objectives have been defined for fisheries in VIa for these components.

228 The assessment and comparison of the management scenarios were carried out using three
229 categories of indicators (i) biomass of key demersal stocks; (ii) ecosystem indicators relevant
230 to assess GES, (iii) economic indicators to assess economic viability and profitability.

231 The key demersal stocks included cod, whiting, haddock, hake, saithe, and Nephrops. The
232 applied EwE model returns SSB for the three former stocks and Total Stock Biomass (TSB)

for Nephrops. The model also returns TSB of a group of similar species, of which hake comprises >80% (see Baudron and Fernandes, 2015), and which henceforth will be regarded as hake for the purposes of this work. Similarly, the model returns TSB of closely related species of which saithe comprises >95% (Bailey et al., 2011), and which here will be regarded as saithe.

Four indicators were chosen as relevant to assess GES: biomass of seals, biomass of seabirds, biomass of prey fish, and an index of “balanced evenness” (see Appendices D and E for details). These indicators were chosen because they could be computed from the biomasses returned by the model and because they are relevant to assess the identified scenarios. The biomass of seals was relevant since we tested a scenario involving a seal cull. As top predators, the biomass of seals depends on what the ecosystem food chain can support. Similarly, the biomass of seabirds depends on and reflects ecosystem health. Since most seabirds feed on small pelagic fish at a lower trophic level than the species that constitute the prey for seals, seabird biomass offers a different perspective on the food web. The group prey fish was established to encompass small forage-type fish, which support the biomass of piscivorous species of many of which are targeted commercially but also constitutes the diet of many top and intermediate predators. Lastly, the balance evenness index measures the biodiversity of the food web (see Annex D for details). Unlike traditional diversity indices such as the Shannon index, the balance evenness index accounts for the diversity within each trophic level. The main objectives and chosen indicators are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Objectives defined for the case study (left column); their basis (middle column) and the indicators in the MCA (right column). Details of the MCA indicators are provided in Appendix D.

Objective	Basis	MCA indicators
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To recover the cod and whiting stocks	CFP requirement and stakeholder objective	Cod SSB Whiting SSB
Healthy commercial fish stocks	CFP and MSFD Descriptor 3 Stakeholder objective	Haddock SSB Saithe TSB Hake TSB Nephrops TSB
Maintain foodweb integrity	MSFD Descriptor 4	Balanced evenness Prey fish species TSB Seabird biomass Seal biomass
Economic sustainability	CFP and stakeholder objective	Catch value by fleet (pelagic, demersal and Nephrops) Profit proxy by fleet

2.5 Management scenarios

Generic management scenarios were identified in cooperation with stakeholders to represent candidate approaches to achieve identified objectives to the extent possible. Two scenarios were defined to represent baselines for comparison (Table 2).

Table 2. The explored management scenarios (short name used in MCA in parenthesis), their rationale, and model approach. The scenario marked with (*) involved seal culling and was only included to assess the effect of seal predation on cod and whiting recovery.

Strategy type	Scenario and rationale	Modelling approach
Reference points (baseline)	<p><i>Fishing at Maximum Sustainable Yield (F_{MSY})</i></p> <p>Baseline for comparing alternatives. Reflects MSY as a main policy goal of CFP. This strategy does not consider aspects of landing obligations (notably choke species problems) and can therefore not be fully implemented in practice due to mixed fisheries interactions.</p>	Set F at (single species) F_{MSY} or best available F_{MSY} proxy for all species.
Economic optimisation	<p><i>Fishing at Mixed Maximum Economic Yield (MixMEY)</i></p> <p>There is a conflict between the requirements of the Landing Obligation, MSY (partly due to the choke species issues), and the objective of economic sustainability. This conflict is pronounced in a situation of mixed fisheries, where catches of depleted stocks cannot be fully avoided in fisheries for other stocks (Ulrich et al., 2017).</p> <p>F-ranges provide flexibility, increasing the scope for MEY candidates compatible with policy requirements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Optimize MEY across stocks within the flexibility provided by F-ranges. • Relax MSY constraints for Cod and Whiting; MSY constraints for other TAC stocks. • Maintain incentives to avoid cod and whiting catches. 	<p>Identify MEY candidate within F-ranges for haddock, saithe, anglerfish and hake.</p> <p>Keep F for cod and whiting as low as practically possible without reducing F_s for fisheries with these species as bycatch.</p> <p>Reduce F for haddock consistent with effort to avoid cod and whiting bycatch.</p> <p>Explore F_{MSY} ranges for other demersal target species.</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain Nephrops F at current level as increasing it would be difficult and would increase risks of catching juvenile cod and whiting). 	Keep F for Nephrops at 2013 level.
Spatial aspects of mixed fisheries	<p><i>Spatial Management of the Mixed Fishery (Spatial F)</i></p> <p>Promote cod and whiting recovery, giving consideration to the spatial distributions of catch species. This assumes separability between mixed demersal fisheries mainly located on the shelf (cod, haddock and whiting) from those mainly located on the shelf edge (hake, saithe and anglerfish), and that different Fs can therefore be applied to these two groups (shelf, and shelf edge). See Annex G for information on the distribution of these species.</p>	Explore F -ranges while restricting the F values applied for each of the following two groups to be within ± 0.05 of each other: (i) cod, haddock and whiting (located on the shelf) and (ii) hake, saithe and anglerfish (located on the shelf).
Predator control	<p><i>Gadoid recovery</i></p> <p>Promote cod and whiting recovery by fishing saithe at upper F-range ($F=0.42$) as saithe has been found to be a significant predator of juvenile cod and whiting. Closure of targeted fisheries for cod and whiting while accepting present level of bycatch simulated by applying $F=0.05$ (residual F currently observed for adult whiting which is no longer actively targeted).</p>	Apply F_{MSY} values for all species except cod, whiting and saithe for which various levels of F are tested.
Predator control	<p><i>Gadoid recovery and seal cull*</i></p> <p>As the previous except for a simulation of an annual cull of grey seals.</p>	As above except F for grey seals set at 0.05

Baseline	<i>Status quo F (SQ)</i> Alternative baseline: what would happen if present fishing mortalities continue?	<i>F at F₂₀₁₃ for all groups</i>
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2.6 Estimation of scenario impacts

We assessed the performance of the identified management scenarios with the EwE model, applying F s corresponding to the scenarios to drive forward simulations for a 30 year period from 2014 to 2033. For the Status quo scenario, we kept F s at their 2013 level. For the F_{MSY} scenario, we applied single stock F_{MSY} reference points defined by ICES from 2014 and onwards. For the other scenarios, we explored ranges of possible F values for each stock. Following a request from the European commission, ICES now provides F ranges in addition to the traditional single stock F_{MSY} values. The F_{MSY} ranges are limited by upper and lower boundaries, which are defined such that expected sustainable yield is no more than 5% lower than MSY (ICES, 2016b). The F -ranges applied have not been defined for all the stocks relevant to the modelled scenarios, and in some cases we used the best available proxy (e.g. F -ranges defined for the same stock in an adjacent area). Appendix F provides details for the F_{MSY} ranges used to model the scenarios. For each stock, we explored the F ranges by simulating the upper and lower F boundaries and F values between these boundaries with 0.05 steps. For each management scenario other than Status quo and F_{MSY} , we simulated each possible combination of F s between the stocks, with one simulation corresponding to a single combination. We used the Multisim plugin of the EwE software to perform the simulations.

3. Results: Structured scenario evaluation with MCA

287 An essential step in the process of using MCA is to develop a hierarchical structure of the
288 problem context, which in turn will enable a systematic evaluation of the identified scenarios.
289 We defined the value tree (Fig. 2) in cooperation with stakeholders to increase the relevance
290 of the MCA.

291 [Fig. 2 about here]

292 **Fig. 2.** Structure of the MCA (value tree) used to evaluate the alternatives. The evaluation is
293 based on model estimates for two time points (2020 and 2025) with regard to the 16 indicators
294 presented in table 1.

295

296 The value tree is a hierarchical structure and includes two main branches to support
297 deliberations relating to temporal trade-offs.. While the EwE model indicators for each year
298 between 2014 and 2033, we only used estimates of indicators status from 2020 and 2025 in
299 the MCA, calculated as three year averages with the indicated time point at the middle of the
300 interval. The years 2020 and 2025 were chosen by stakeholders to respectively represent short
301 and medium term outcomes. The two branches are symmetrically divided further into sub-
302 branches representing ecological and economic concerns. The economic sub-branch is divided
303 into a branch for profitability and a branch for catch values, and each of the latter is connected
304 to indicator for each of three fleets. The ecological branch is sub-divided to enable a trade-off
305 between commercial stock sustainability and other ecosystem sustainability aspects (termed
306 “foodweb”). The value tree includes separate nodes for the six key commercial stocks. The
307 non-commercial aspects are evaluated through four nodes: availability of important prey fish
308 species (“preyfish”), seals and seabirds and “balanced evenness”.

309 We selected outputs from the scenario modelling with EwE to calculate the MCA indicators
310 (see Appendix D for details). The input data for the MCA (i.e. consequence table) is shown in
311 Appendix H.

312 Value functions

313 The value functions describe the relative utility of a given indicator within the available range
314 between the lowest and highest indicator values across the scenarios. The utility values range
315 between 0 and 1, and the shape of the value function defines how utility relates to the
316 indicator value. The utility functions were defined by the stakeholders (the economic
317 indicators) or by the authors (ecological indicators). The definition of value functions and
318 decisions weights (see below) is subjective, but was based on reasoning in order for the MCA
319 to be meaningful. We are not aware of any earlier study that has used MCA in a way that
320 creates a relevant precedence for defining the value functions, which we set as follows:

321 *Economic indicators*

322 The value functions for the economic indicators (catch value and profitability by fleet) were
323 set to increase linearly from the minimum value for the indicator across the scenarios
324 (assigned utility = 0) to the maximum value (utility = 1). This implies that any increase in
325 revenue is equally important within the available range of options.

326 *Stock sustainability*

327 The value functions for the SSB of cod, whiting and haddock were defined in relation to ICES
328 reference points for these stocks, so that the utility SSB would be zero at $SSB = 0$, increase
329 linearly to 0.5 at B_{lim} and linearly from that point until reaching 1 at B_{pa} , and with no change
330 in utility with SSB values higher than B_{pa} (Fig. 3). For haddock, cod, whiting, saithe and hake
331 ICES has proposed to use B_{pa} as a B_{MSY} trigger point, essentially rendering the B_{pa} a target
332 point for MSY. Since 2013, ICES has not provided separate assessments of haddock in VIa as
333 it is now included in a larger stock area. To define the utility function for haddock SSB we
334 used ICES previous reference points, specific for haddock in VIa (ICES 2013).

335 [Fig. 3 about here]

336 Fig. 3. Utility functions defined for SSB.

337

338 We used the average ratio between ICES' SSB estimates for saithe and the TSB estimates for
339 saithe from the EwE model for the years 2004-2013 to rescale ICES reference points.

340 Subsequently we defined the utility functions as described in Fig. 3. The same approach was
341 used for hake. ICES does not provide reference points for SSB for Nephrops in the functional
342 units in area VIa. However, differences between TSB estimates for Nephrops across the
343 scenarios are small. ICES assessments for the years around the year 2013 and later indicate
344 that these stocks are significantly above an MSY level. Accordingly, we set the utility for
345 Nephrops at 1 for all scenarios, assuming that they were at or above levels compatible with
346 ICES notion of B_{pa} .

347 *Foodweb indicators*

348 We set an increasing linear value function for the indicator "Preyfish" to reflect the
349 importance of having prey fish species available for species on higher trophic levels. An
350 increasing linear function was also set for 'balanced evenness' and for the biomass of
351 seabirds, reflecting that "more is better" for these indicators within the range of estimated
352 outcomes. The stakeholders defined a dome shaped value for the seal population, preferring
353 that the population does not decline below the current level, and perceiving that a
354 considerably larger seal population would not be desirable as it predares on cod and whiting.

355

356 **Decision weights**

357 The decision weights were largely set by the stakeholders that participated in the decision
358 support workshop (Table 3), but the time available proved insufficient for thinking carefully

359 through the issues involved. In some instances, the decision weights were therefore redefined
 360 by the authors. The participants in the workshop found it difficult to agree on decision
 361 weights, reflecting differences in individual preferences. For the purposes of the case study,
 362 we encouraged consensus development, bearing in mind that the influence of the Advisory
 363 Councils depends on its ability to generate consensus advice (Hatchard and Gray, 2014).

364 Table 3. Relative decisions weights (presented as ratios) with regard to trade-offs between
 365 concerns structured according to the value tree in Fig. 2.

Trade-off	Relative decision weights	Rationales and comments
Short term (2020) vs. medium term (2025)	3:2	Reflecting the need of getting the industry through a period expected to be particularly economically difficult due to the onset of the landing obligation.
Economic vs. ecological concerns	3:2	Compromise consistent with the statutory composition of the AC regarding industry vs non-industry representatives.
Profit vs. catch value	1:1	At the time of the workshop, an indicator of profitability was not available
Demersal vs. Pelagic vs. Nephrops fleets regarding profit and catch value	2:1:1	In the workshop, stakeholders set the decision weights for the fleets as equal. However, it can be argued that the demersal fleet should be given a higher priority than the pelagic and Nephrops fleets as it is subjected to much higher variability regarding profit and catch value across the scenarios, reflecting a higher sensitivity to economic performance (Appendix J).
Stock sustainability vs. foodweb	3:2	Above argument relating the statutory composition of the AC
Cod vs. whiting vs haddock vs. hake, vs. saithe vs. Nephrops	2:2:1:1:1:1	In a workshop, the stakeholders set decision weights for the six commercial stocks to reflect differences in their economic significance. However, as this branch concerns stock sustainability, while economic concerns are address in a separate branch, the authors decided to

		redefine these decision weights for the purpose of this analysis. The weights set so that stocks with SSB below B_{lim} in the base year 2013 (cod and whiting) were given double weight compared to the other stocks, which were judged to be above B_{pa} .
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Evaluation outcomes

Fig. 4 shows the performance of the management scenarios as summary scores. The highest score indicates the best performing scenario with respect to the identified objectives, given the decision weights and utility functions presented above. Details of how each indicator contributed to the overall performance of each scenario are provided in Appendix I.

[Fig. 4 about here]

Fig. 4. The figure shows the aggregated score (sum of utility contributions from all indicators) for the identified management alternatives, given the decision weights defined in table 3.

The evaluation indicates that “MSY” would achieve the highest aggregated evaluation score (0.692), closely followed by “Mixed MEY” (0.684), “Gadoid Recovery” (0.677), “Gadoid Recovery with seal cull” (0.653) and then by “Spatial F (0.541)” and “Status Quo F ” (0.372).

The baseline scenario “Status Quo F ” clearly performed poorly compared to the other scenarios, indicating a potential for improvements through alternative strategies. While “MSY” is consistent with main objectives of the CFP, it is not possible to fully implement in practice due to mixed fisheries interactions and ensuing choke species issues. This also applies to the two “Gadoid recovery” scenarios as the modelling of these relied on F_{MSY} for most species. “Mixed MEY” and “Spatial F ” were set up and constrained in order to take mixed fisheries issues into account. These scenarios are also subjected to implementation error as they do not represent detailed solutions to the mixed fisheries and choke species

387 issues, and we recognize that the chosen modelling framework is not always suitable for
388 modelling these aspects in detail. However, it seems reasonable that the implementation error
389 was less for Mixed MEY” and “Spatial F ” than for the scenarios based on F_{MSY} . This
390 suggests that the performance of “MSY” and the gadoid recovery scenarios is inflated
391 compared to “Mixed MEY” and “Spatial F ”. Given that “MSY” and “Mixed MEY” received
392 very similar scores, this indicates that “Mixed MEY” in practice performed best overall.
393 “Mixed MEY” did not perform worse than the other scenarios for any indicator (Appendix I).
394 Although they achieve similar overall scores, there were significant differences between the
395 performance of “Mixed MEY” and “Gadoid Recovery”. The former did better regarding
396 profits in the short and medium term, while the latter performed better regarding stocks, in
397 particular in the long term. In turn, “Spatial F ” lost out because it performed poorly regarding
398 profitability, in particular for the demersal fleet. This was expected as the scenario involved F
399 reductions for stocks caught together with cod and whiting in order to promote recovery of
400 the latter two stocks.

401 “Gadoid Recovery with seal cull” was only included to explore the impact of grey seal
402 predation as it did not represent an acceptable management scenario in the UK. Predation of
403 grey seal was found to affect the recovery of cod and whiting, although not strongly when
404 compared to the impact of fishing and/or other predator interactions.

405 No scenario was estimated to lead to rapid recovery of cod and whiting, but the outcomes
406 indicated that recovery of these stocks was possible in the long term through a combination of
407 measures. “Spatial F ” displayed the greatest cod recovery in the short term and lead to full
408 recovery above B_{pa} as well as the highest cod SSB level across all scenarios in the medium
409 term. Apart from “Spatial F ”, only “Gadoid Recovery” (and “MSY”) increased the cod SSB
410 to a level near B_{pa} . The gadoid recovery scenarios lead to the highest increases in whiting
411 SSB, but no scenario involved recovery to B_{pa} for whiting (Appendix H). This is due to the

412 fact that cod predate heavily on whiting in the area. Hence, recovering cod increases
413 predation pressure on whiting and in turn delays its recovery, despite a reduction in F . This
414 example illustrates a type of insights which is not available based on single species models
415 without trophic interactions, reflecting how a foodweb model may serve to complement the
416 information basis for EBFM.

417

418 **Sensitivity analysis**

419 In accordance with the reasoning provided above, and in the interests of simplification,
420 “MSY” was omitted from the sensitivity analysis. The sensitivity analysis indicated that quite
421 small changes in the weights assigned for the temporal aspect changed the ranking of “Mixed
422 MEY” and “Gadoid recovery”, i.e. the two best performing scenarios following “MSY”. The
423 decision weights reflected a slight priority given to short term considerations, and this resulted
424 in an overall preference for “Mixed MEY”. The prioritisation of short term considerations
425 reflects a high discount rate consistent with what has been estimated for other fisheries
426 (Asche, 2001). However, “Gadoid Recovery” would obtain the highest score if stakeholders
427 had assigned equal priority to short and medium term concerns. The other scenarios did not
428 rank highest regardless of the weights assigned for the short and medium term. The ranking of
429 scenarios was, therefore, robust regarding changes in the preference between the ecological
430 and economic objectives in 2020.

431 The sustainability of cod and whiting stocks were assigned a higher weight than the stocks of
432 haddock, saithe, hake and Nephrops stocks. “Mixed MEY” dominated irrespective of the
433 weight assigned to the cod stock. The ranking of scenarios was robust to stock assessment
434 uncertainty. “Mixed MEY” had the highest overall value (although with a small margin) even
435 if the stock biomass estimate was significantly biased for any of the stocks.

436 Consequently, and, as explained apart from “MSY”, the sensitivity analysis for all decision
437 weights and predictions indicated that either “Mixed MEY” or “Gadoid Recovery” performed
438 best overall. The preference for these strategies was robust for a wide range of changes in
439 weights assigned to the many sub-objectives and to biases in the predictions for fish stock
440 biomass, profits, the value of landings, and bird and seal abundances.

441 **5. Discussion and conclusions**

442 **Identification of scope, objectives and indicators**

443 The scope of the case study was defined in a workshop held early in the project, but it proved
444 necessary to restrict the problem matter later. Stakeholders expressed increasing interest in
445 investigating issues relating to the landing obligation. The researchers perceived that this
446 would risk diverting focus from the project goal to address EBFM, and that the modelling
447 framework chosen would be inappropriate for studying the landing obligation. A compromise
448 was found, and the experience shows the importance of clarifying and managing mutual
449 expectations and needs from start to finish. The limitations with regard to participation of
450 NWWAC members (in particular concerning the representation of other interests than
451 commercial fisheries) underline that outcomes of the case study do not represent a NWWAC
452 position. The case study was explored in terms of a methodology with a potential to support
453 the development and structured evaluation of such a position.

454 The selection of indicators was challenging as they had to be relevant for evaluating the
455 defined objectives, they had to be easily understood, and possible to estimate (see e.g. Rice
456 and Rochet, 2005; Jennings, 2005). We did not identify ecosystem indicators with all desired
457 properties and included some improvised indicators. In addition, our approach to estimate the
458 economic indicators, revenue and profit, necessary to compare the performance of
459 management scenarios was simplistic and based, for profit at least, on proxies.

460 **Identification of alternative management scenarios**

461 The formulation of operational alternatives was a challenge, in part due to the restrictions
462 regarding what could be estimated by the chosen model. The notion of *F*-ranges presented
463 itself as an opportunity at a late stage of the project, reflecting benefits of an iterative
464 approach to scenario formulation.

465 **Estimation of scenario impacts**

466 While the EwE model was well suited for exploring the impact of predation by seal and
467 piscivorous fish on cod and whiting recovery, it was less suited to investigate the short term
468 impact of the landing obligation. As is often the case for complex ecosystem models, the EwE
469 model does not in itself provide for a formal uncertainty analysis. Models of intermediate
470 complexity such as GADGET provide uncertainty analysis of the estimates for the fish
471 species it considers, but then they include fewer components. In our case study, the lack of
472 uncertainty estimates is to some extent compensated for by the sensitivity analysis in the
473 MCA.

474 Some stakeholders were sceptical to specific scenario projections. For instance, stakeholders
475 argued that it would not be practically feasible to increase *F* for *Nephrops* significantly as
476 entailed in some scenarios in the first version of the MCA. This prompted a change of
477 scenario formulations for *Nephrops*, reflecting the importance of an iterative process and of
478 utilising stakeholders' local ecological knowledge to improve the reliability of outcomes.

479 Moreover, many stakeholders seemed somewhat sceptical to the use of a broad ecosystem
480 model, questioning the reliability of its detailed outputs. Such scepticism is sound, and
481 stimulates critical examination of the outputs. Yet, model simulations of complex issues on a
482 medium time scale cannot generate predictions with the level of certainty that characterizes
483 traditional single stock projections. As suggested by Degnbol (2005), an ecosystem approach

484 will require that expectations of predictability are lowered, which in turn necessitates change
485 in the way model outcomes are perceived to support planning. Stakeholders and researchers
486 will need to embrace such changes, and the co-creation approach represents one way to
487 stimulate learning, dialogue and creativity with regard to making use of models with high
488 uncertainty and soft predictability. We do not consider this a barrier to future use of
489 ecosystem models as most stakeholders, especially those with a background in fisheries,
490 experience variations in the ecosystem and hence readily understand that model estimates are
491 uncertain.

492 **Structured evaluation with MCA and feedback**

493 The MCA methodology complements the co-creation approach because its main framing
494 elements (e.g. scope, criteria, objectives, problem structure and alternatives) are explicit
495 inputs that can be “opened up” for deliberation (Stirling, 2006). If the role of stakeholders is
496 limited to set decision weights, the MCA would at once be “closing down” a wider policy
497 discourse (Saarakoski et al. 2012). To promote relevance and buy-in, the co-creation approach
498 fosters involvement of stakeholders in a sequential process of “closing” each of the framing
499 elements in order to establish and use the MCA. The co-creation approach, however, does not
500 invite unconstrained deliberation as it insists on policy relevance. Stakeholders were well
501 aware of and accept the policies that apply to the fisheries in question, and thereby in the
502 position to set relevant objectives to be included in the MCA.

503 The definition of the value tree in MCA lent itself well to a participatory approach, and it was
504 straightforward to reach agreement on a suitable structure. In contrast, stakeholders did not
505 perceive the setting of decision weights and value functions to be intuitive. In testing the
506 MCA approach, we encouraged the stakeholders to reach consensus, having in mind that the
507 NWWAC generally seeks to achieve consensus in order increase the legitimacy and impact of

508 its advice. However, the participants in the workshop stated a preference for an approach
509 based on individual MCAs. It should also be noted that stakeholders may be reluctant to
510 clarify their priorities in public, as this may compromise subsequent negotiation positions
511 (Pope et al., this issue). As long as they build on the same value tree and set of scenarios,
512 individual MCAs can be aggregated into a common result (Mustajoki, 2004). MCAs can also
513 be used by decision makers to provide information on how different stakeholder groups
514 evaluate the issues at hand.

515 The setting of decision weights is subjective, and appeared to be perceived as abstract and
516 somewhat uncomfortable. Nevertheless, such priorities are also made implicitly when
517 decisions are made unaided by decision support methods. An advantage of MCA is that it
518 requires careful deliberation about priorities in relation to specific trade-offs. The explication
519 of priorities stimulates the articulation of rationales, enhances transparency, and allows for
520 repeatability.

521 A generic strategy that aims to optimize economic yield within the applicable F_{MSY} ranges
522 was found to represent a promising approach as it makes it possible to take predator-prey
523 relationships (and potentially also harvest technical interactions) into account. Such
524 considerations will require that the main trade-offs are presented, considered and evaluated,
525 for instance with MCA. However, the specific outcomes of this work cannot be taken to
526 represent the views of the stakeholders with which we have cooperated as time and resources
527 did not permit us to evaluate the final versions of the scenarios presented here. The evaluation
528 and the sensitivity analysis suggested that either “Mixed MEY” or “Gadoid recovery”
529 performed best overall. These two strategies are performing well for a wide range of changes
530 in decision weights and estimates of indicator status. Further efforts to validate the predictions
531 for these two strategies are nevertheless warranted. Also, it would be worthwhile to examine

532 the trade-offs these two management strategies will imply for different stakeholder groupings
533 in more detail.

534 The reformed CFP has established a framework for regionalized management. A proposal for
535 a multiannual plan for demersal species in western waters is currently considered for
536 adoption by the Council and the European parliament (EC, 2018). As part of the process of
537 developing the proposal, a public hearing was conducted by the Commission to gather inputs
538 on the plan (DGMARE, 2015). The NWWAC expressed dissatisfaction with the approach of
539 this hearing, finding it insufficiently detailed. If appropriately extended, validated and
540 improved, the tools and processes developed and tested in this case study could potentially
541 provide support for advisory councils and/or groups of member states to explore and
542 document their position on generic management options. The notion of F_{MSY} ranges
543 represents a key element of the proposed multiannual plan (EC, 2018). If adopted, the plan
544 will establish management flexibility to address mixed fisheries issues in the way suggested
545 with the “Mixed MEY” and “Spatial F ” scenarios.

546 The fact that the UK has decided to leave the EU, however, raises uncertainty about the
547 management framework that will apply to demersal fisheries off the west coast of Scotland.

548 Scoping and re-scoping problems and potential solutions is an essential aspect of EBFM
549 (Dickey-Collas, 2014). Combining a co-creation method with scenario based planning, using
550 MCA and ecosystem model simulations, the approach presented appears to have a potential
551 for supporting such a scoping process. We are not aware of published studies that have used
552 MCA in the evaluation of management scenarios for EBFM strategies (but see other articles
553 in this issue for a similar approach). Compatible with any model generating relevant scenario
554 information, the MCA is flexible and incurs low costs. In cooperation with stakeholders, we
555 have shown possible ways to reason about value trees, utility functions and decision weights,

556 but the application of MCA in the domain of EBFM largely remains uncharted land and
557 requires further development and tests in order to be consolidated and used.

558

559 **Conclusions**

560 MCA and ecosystem model simulations can be combined to support a participatory approach
561 to scenario based planning in EBFM. The approach does not provide actionable management
562 advice, but stimulates learning and creates an opportunity for stakeholders to search for
563 strategic and policy relevant solutions and to position themselves in an EBFM context.

564

565 Expectations regarding model precision have to be adjusted when the scope of the
566 management focus is expanded from a single species to complex ecosystems. This should be
567 approached in a way that supports communication and understanding regarding uncertainty in
568 the planning processes.

569

570 The MCA facilitated a structured, transparent and repeatable evaluation of trade-offs, based
571 on explicit priorities, but it was difficult for stakeholders to reach agreements on how set
572 utility functions and decision weights. This requires careful deliberation and time and may be
573 complicated due to a reluctance to reveal negotiation positions (Pope et al., this issue). The
574 application of MCA in the domain of EBFM will require consolidation in order to be used in
575 practice.

576

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584

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